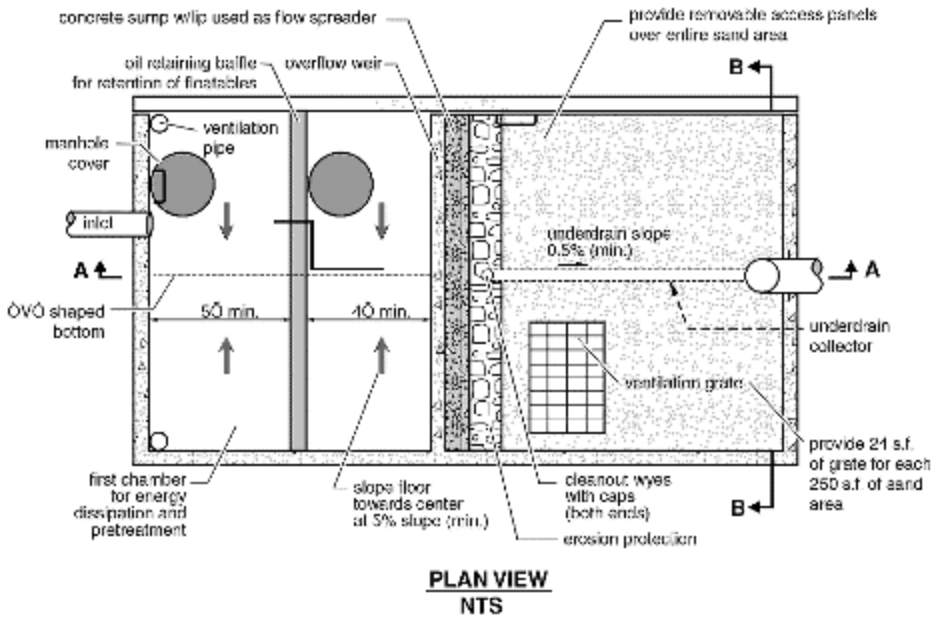
Sand and Organic Filters

Postconstruction Storm Water Management in New Development and Redevelopment

Description

Sand filters are usually two-chambered storm water practices; the first is a settling chamber, and the second is a filter bed filled with sand or another filtering media. As storm water flows into the first chamber, large particles settle out, and then finer particles and other pollutants are removed as storm water flows through the filtering medium. There are several modifications of the basic sand filter design, including the surface sand filter, underground sand filter, perimeter sand filter, organic media filter, and Multi-Chamber Treatment Train. All of these filtering practices operate on the same basic principle. Modifications to the traditional surface sand filter were made primarily to fit sand filters into more challenging design sites (e.g., underground and perimeter filters) or to improve pollutant removal (e.g., organic media filter).



Schematic of a sand filter (Source: King County, Washington, 2000)

Applicability

Sand filters can be applied in most regions of the country and on most types of sites. Some restrictions at the site level, however, might restrict the use of sand filters as a storm water management practice (see Siting and Design Considerations).

Regional Applicability

Although sand filters can be used in both cold and arid climates, some design modifications might be necessary (See Siting and Design Considerations).

Ultra-Urban Areas

Ultra-urban areas are densely developed urban areas in which little pervious surface is present. Sand filters in general are good options in these areas because they consume little space. Underground and perimeter sand filters in particular are well suited to the ultra-urban setting because they consume no surface space.

Storm Water Hot Spots

Storm water hot spots are areas where land use or activities generate highly contaminated runoff, with concentrations of pollutants in excess of those typically found in storm water. These areas include commercial nurseries, auto recycle facilities, commercial parking lots, fueling stations, storage areas, industrial rooftops, marinas, outdoor container storage of liquids, outdoor loading/unloading facilities, public works storage areas, hazardous materials generators (if containers are exposed to rainfall), vehicle service and maintenance areas, and vehicle and equipment washing/steam cleaning facilities. Sand filters are an excellent option to treat runoff from storm water hot spots because storm water treated by sand filters has no interaction with, and thus no potential to contaminate, the groundwater.

Storm Water Retrofit

A storm water retrofit is a storm water management practice (usually structural) put into place after development has occurred to improve water quality, protect downstream channels, reduce flooding, or meet other specific objectives. Sand filters are a good option to achieve water quality goals in retrofit studies where space is limited because they consume very little surface space and have few site restrictions. It is important to note, however, that sand filters cannot treat a very large drainage area. Using small-site BMPs in a retrofit may be the only option for a retrofit study in a highly urbanized area, but it is expensive to treat the drainage area of an entire watershed using many small-site practices, as opposed to one larger facility such as a pond.

Cold Water (Trout) Streams

Some species in cold water streams, notably trout, are extremely sensitive to changes in temperature. To protect these resources, designers should avoid treatment practices that increase the temperature of the storm water runoff they treat. Sand filters can be a good

treatment option for cold water streams. In some storm water treatment practices, particularly wet ponds, runoff is warmed by the sun as it resides in the permanent pool. Surface sand filters are typically not designed with a permanent pool, although there is ponding in the sedimentation chamber and above the sand filter. Designers may consider shortening the detention time in cold water watersheds. Underground and perimeter sand filter designs have little potential for warming because these practices are not exposed to the sun.

Siting and Design Considerations

In addition to the broad applicability issues described above, designers need to consider conditions at the site level and need to incorporate design features to improve the longevity and performance of the practice, while minimizing the maintenance burden.

Siting Considerations

Some considerations when selecting a storm water management practice are the drainage area the practice will need to treat, the slopes both at the location of the practice and draining to it, soil and subsurface conditions, and the depth of the seasonably high ground water table. Although sand filters are relatively versatile, some site restrictions such as available head might limit their use.

Drainage Area

Sand filters are best applied on relatively small sites (up to 10 acres for surface sand filters and closer to 2 acres for perimeter or underground filters [MDE, 2000]). Filters have been used on larger drainage areas, of up to 100 acres, but these systems can clog when they treat larger drainage areas unless adequate measures are provided to prevent clogging, such as a larger sedimentation chamber or more intensive regular maintenance.

Slope

Sand filters can be used on sites with slopes up to about 6 percent. It is challenging to use most sand filters in very flat terrain because they require a significant amount of elevation drop, or head (about 5 to 8 feet), to allow flow through the system. One exception is the perimeter sand filter, which can be applied with as little as 2 feet of head.

Soils/Topography

When sand filters are designed as a stand-alone practice, they can be used on almost any soil because they can be designed so that storm water never infiltrates into the soil or

interacts with the ground water. Alternatively, sand filters can be designed as pretreatment for an infiltration practice, where soils do play a role.

Ground Water

Designers should provide at least 2 feet of separation between the bottom of the filter and the seasonally high ground water table. This design feature prevents both structural damage to the filter and possibly, though unlikely, ground water contamination.

Design Considerations

Specific designs may vary considerably, depending on site constraints or preferences of the designer or community. Some features, however, should be incorporated into most designs. These design features can be divided into five basic categories: pretreatment, treatment, conveyance, maintenance reduction, and landscaping.

Pretreatment

Pretreatment is a critical component of any storm water management practice. In sand filters, pretreatment is achieved in the sedimentation chamber that precedes the filter bed. In this chamber, the coarsest particles settle out and thus do not reach the filter bed. Pretreatment reduces the maintenance burden of sand filters by reducing the potential of these sediments to clog the filter. Designers should provide at least 25 percent of the water quality volume in a dry or wet sedimentation chamber as pretreatment to the filter system. The water quality volume is the amount of runoff that will be treated for pollutant removal in the practice. Typical water quality volumes are the runoff from a 1-inch storm or ½ inch of runoff over the entire drainage area to the practice.

The area of the sedimentation chamber may be determined based on the Camp-Hazen equation, as adapted by the Washington State Department of Ecology (Washington State DOE, 1992). This equation can be expressed as:

$A_s = (Q_o/W)ln(1-E)$

where:

A_s = surface area (ft^2);

Q_o = discharge rate from basin (water quality volume/detention time);

W = particle settling velocity (ft/s);

[CWP (1996) used a settling of 0.0004 ft/s for drainage areas greater than 75% impervious and 0.0033 ft/s for drainage areas less than or equal to 75% impervious to account for the finer particles that erode from pervious surfaces.]

E = removal efficiency fraction (usually assumed to be about 0.9(90%)).

Using the simplifying assumption of a 24-hour detention time, CWP (1996) reduced the above equation to

$A_s = 0.066WTV$ (>75%)

$A_s = 0.0081WTV$ (< or = 75%)

where

WTV = water quality volume (ft^3), or the volume of storm water to be treated by the practice.

Treatment

Treatment design features help enhance the ability of a storm water management practice to remove pollutants. In filtering systems, designers should provide at least 75 percent of the water quality volume in the practice (including both the sand chamber and the sediment chamber). In sand filters, designers should select a medium sand as the filtering medium.

The filter bed should be sized using Darcy's Law, which relates the velocity of fluids to the hydraulic head and the coefficient of permeability of a medium. The resulting equation, as derived by the city of Austin, Texas, (1996), is

$AF = WTV\ d/[k\ t\ (h+d)]$

where

AF = area of the filter bed (ft^2);

d = depth of the filter bed (ft; usually about 1.5 feet, depending on the design);

k = coefficient of permeability of the filtering medium (ft/day);

t = time for the water quality volume to filter through the system (days; usually assumed to be 1.67 days); and

h = average water height above the sand bed (ft; assumed to be one-half of the maximum head).

Typical values for k, as assembled by CWP (1996), are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Coefficient of permeability values for storm water filtering practices (CWP, 1996)

Filter Medium	Coefficient of Permeability (ft/day)
Sand	3.5
Peat/Sand	2.75
Compost	8.7

Conveyance

Conveyance of storm water runoff into and through a storm water practice is a critical component of any storm water management practice. Storm water should be conveyed to and from practices safely and in a manner that minimizes erosion potential. Ideally, some storm water treatment can be achieved during conveyance to and from the practice.

Typically, filtering practices are designed as "off-line" systems, meaning that they have the smaller water quality volume diverted to them only during larger storms, using a flow splitter, which is a structure that bypasses larger flows to the storm drain system or to a stabilized channel. One exception is the perimeter filter; in this design, all flows enter the system, but larger flows overflow to an outlet chamber and are not treated by the practice.

All filtering practices, with the exception of exfilter designs (see Design Variations) are designed with an under drain below the filtering bed. An under drain is a perforated pipe system in a gravel bed, installed on the bottom of filtering practices and used to collect and remove filtered runoff.

Maintenance Reduction

In addition to regular maintenance activities needed to maintain the function of storm water practices, some design features can be incorporated to ease the maintenance burden of each practice. Designers should provide maintenance access to filtering systems. In underground sand filters, confined space rules defined by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) need to be addressed.

Landscaping

Landscaping can add to both the aesthetic value and the treatment ability of storm water practices. In sand filters, little landscaping is generally used on the practice, although surface sand filters and organic media filters may be designed with a grass cover on the surface of the filter. In all filters, designers need to ensure that the contributing drainage has dense vegetation to reduce sediment loads to the practice.

Design Variations

As mentioned earlier in this fact sheet, there are five basic storm water filter designs--surface sand filter, underground filter, perimeter filter (also known as the "Delaware"

filter), organic media filter, and Multi-Chamber Treatment Train. Other design variations can incorporate design features to recharge ground water or to meet the design challenges of cold or arid climates.

Surface Sand Filter

The surface sand filter is the original sand filter design. In this practice both the filter bed and the sediment chamber are aboveground. The surface sand filter is designed as an off-line practice, where only the water quality volume is directed to the filter. The surface sand filter is the least expensive filter option and has been the most widely used.

Underground Sand Filter

The underground sand filter is a modification of the surface sand filter, where all of the filter components are underground. Like the surface sand filter, this practice is an off-line system that receives only the smaller water quality events. Underground sand filters are expensive to construct but consume very little space. They are well suited to highly urbanized areas.

Perimeter Sand Filter

The perimeter sand filter also includes the basic design elements of a sediment chamber and a filter bed. In this design, however, flow enters the system through grates, usually at the edge of a parking lot. The perimeter sand filter is the only filtering option that is on-line, with all flows entering the system but larger events bypassing treatment by entering an overflow chamber. One major advantage to the perimeter sand filter design is that it requires little hydraulic head and thus is a good option in areas of low relief.

Organic Media Filter

Organic media filters are essentially the same as surface filters, with the sand medium replaced with or supplemented by another medium. Two examples are the peat/sand filter (Galli, 1990) and the compost filter system (CSF, 1996). The assumption is that these systems will have enhanced pollutant removal for many compounds because of the increased cation exchange capacity achieved by increasing the organic matter.

Multi-Chamber Treatment Train

The Multi-Chamber Treatment Train (Robertson et al., 1995) is essentially a "deluxe sand filter." This underground system consists of three chambers. Storm water enters into the first chamber, where screening occurs, trapping large sediments and releasing highly volatile materials. The second chamber provides settling of fine sediments and further removal of volatile compounds and also floatable hydrocarbons through the use of fine bubble diffusers and sorbent pads. The final chamber provides filtration by using a sand and peat mixed medium for reduction of the remaining pollutants. The top of the filter is covered by a filter fabric that evenly distributes the water volume and prevents

channelization. Although this practice can achieve very high pollutant removal rates, it might be prohibitively expensive in many areas and has been implemented only on an experimental basis.

Exfiltration/Partial Exfiltration

In exfilter designs, all or part of the under drain system is replaced with an open bottom that allows infiltration to the ground water. When the under drain is present, it is used as an overflow device in case the filter becomes clogged. These designs are best applied in the same soils where infiltration practices are used (see Infiltration Basin and Infiltration Trench fact sheets).

Regional Variations

Arid Climates

Filters have not been widely used in arid climates. In these climates, however, it is probably necessary to increase storage in the sediment chamber to account for high sediment loads. Designers should consider increasing the volume of the sediment chamber to up to 40 percent of the water quality volume.

Cold Climates

In cold climates, filters can be used, but surface or perimeter filters will not be effective during the winter months, and unintended consequences might result from a frozen filter bed. Using alternative conveyance measures such as a weir system between the sediment chamber and filter bed may avoid freezing associated with the traditional standpipe. Where possible, the filter bed should be below the frost line. Some filters, such as the peat/sand filter, should be shut down during the winter. These media will become completely impervious during freezing conditions. Using a larger under drain system to encourage rapid draining during the winter months may prevent freezing of the filter bed. Finally, the sediment chamber should be larger in cold climates to account for road sanding (up to 40 percent of the water quality volume).

Limitations

Sand filters can be used in unique conditions where many other storm water management practices are inappropriate, such as in karst (i.e., limestone) topography or in highly urbanized settings. There are several limitations to these practices, however. Sand filters cannot control floods and generally are not designed to protect stream channels from erosion or to recharge the ground water. In addition, sand filters require frequent maintenance, and underground and perimeter versions of these practices are easily forgotten because they are out of sight. Perhaps one of the greatest limitations to sand filters is that they cannot be used to treat large drainage areas. Finally, surface sand filters are generally not aesthetically pleasing management practices. Underground and

perimeter sand filters are not visible, and thus do not add or detract from the aesthetic value of a site.

Maintenance Considerations

Intense and frequent maintenance and inspection practices are needed for filter systems. Table 2 outlines some of these requirements.

Table 2: Typical maintenance/inspection activities for filtration systems (Adapted from WMI, 1997; CWP, 1997)

Activity	Schedule
• Ensure that contributing area, filtering practice, inlets, and outlets are clear of debris. • Ensure that the contributing area is stabilized and mowed, with clippings removed. • Check to ensure that the filter surface is not clogging (also after moderate and major storms). • Ensure that activities in the drainage area minimize oil/grease and sediment entry to the system. • If a permanent pool is present, ensure that the chamber does not leak and that normal pool level is retained.	Monthly
• Replace sorbent pillows (Multi-Chamber Treatment Train only).	Biannual
• Check to see that the filter bed is clean of sediments, and the sediment chamber is no more than one-half full of sediment. Remove sediment if necessary. • Make sure that there is no evidence of deterioration, sailing, or cracking of concrete. • Inspect grates (if used). • Inspect inlets, outlets, and overflow spillway to ensure good condition and no evidence of erosion. • Repair or replace any damaged structural parts. • Stabilize any eroded areas. • Ensure that flow is not bypassing the facility. • Ensure that no noticeable odors are detected outside the facility.	Annual

Effectiveness

Structural storm water management practices can be used to achieve four broad resource protection goals: flood control, channel protection, ground water recharge, and pollutant removal. Filtering practices are for the most part adapted only to provide pollutant removal.

Ground Water Recharge

In exfilter designs, some ground water recharge can be provided; however, none of the other sand filter designs can provide recharge.

Pollutant Removal

Sand filters are effective storm water management practices for pollutant removal. Removal rates for all sand filters and organic filters are presented in Table 3. With the exception of nitrates, which appear to be exported from filtering systems, they perform relatively well at removing pollutants. The export of nitrates from filters may be caused by mineralization of organic nitrogen in the filter bed. Table 3 shows typical removal efficiencies for sand filters.

Table 3: Sand filter removal efficiencies (percent)

	Sand Filters (Schueler, 1997)	**Peat/Sand Filter (Curran, 1996)**	**Compost Filter System**		**Multi-Chamber Treatment Train**		
			Stewart, 1992	**Leif, 1999**	**Pitt et al., 1997**	**Pitt, 1996**	**Greb et al., 1998**
TSS	87	66	95	85	85	83	98
TP	51	51	41	4	80	-	84
TN	44	47	-	-	-	-	-
Nitrate	-13	22	-34	-95	-	14	-
Metals	34-80	26-75	61-88	44-75	65-90	91-100	83-89
Bacteria	55	-	-	-	-	-	-

From the few studies available, it is difficult to determine if organic filters necessarily have higher removal efficiencies than sand filters. The Multi-Chamber Treatment Train appears to have high pollutant removal for some constituents, although these data are based on only a handful of studies. The siting and design criteria presented in this fact sheet reflect the best current information and experience to improve the performance of sand filters. A recent joint project of the American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE) and the U.S. EPA Office of Water may help to isolate specific design features that can improve performance. The National Stormwater Best Management Practice (BMP) database is a compilation of storm water practices that includes both design information and performance data for various practices. As the database expands, inferences about the extent to which specific design criteria influence pollutant removal may be made. For more information on this database, access the ASCE web page at *http://www.asce.org*.

Cost Considerations

There are few consistent data on the cost of sand filters, largely because, with the exception of Austin, Texas, Alexandria, Virginia, and Washington, D.C., they have not been widely used. Furthermore, filters have such varied designs that it is difficult to assign a cost to filters in general. A study by Brown and Schueler (1997) was unable to find a statistically valid relationship between the volume of water treated in a filter and the cost of the practice, but

typical total cost of installation ranged between $2.50 and $7.50 per cubic foot of storm water treated, with an average cost of about $5 per cubic foot. (This estimate includes approximately 25 percent contingency costs beyond the construction costs reported). The cost per impervious acre treated varies considerably depending on the region and design used (see Table 4). It is important to note that, although underground and perimeter sand filters can be more expensive than surface sand filters, they consume no surface space, making them a relatively cost-effective practice in ultra-urban areas where land is at a premium.

Table 4: Construction costs for various sand filters (Source: Schueler, 1994)

Region (Design)	Cost/Impervious Acre
Delaware (Perimeter)	$10,000
Alexandria, VA (Perimeter)	$23,500
Austin, TX (<2 acres) (Surface)	$16,000
Austin, TX (>5 acres) (Surface)	$3,400
Washington, DC (underground)	$14,000
Denver, CO	$30,000–$50,000
Multi-Chamber Treatment Train	$40,000–$80,000

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Appendix I. Filter removal efficiency data

Filter Removal Efficiencies							
Study	**TSS**	**TP**	**TN**	**NO_3**	**Metals**	**Bacteria**	**Practice Type**
Bell et al., 1995	79	65.5	47	-53.3	25–91	-	perimeter sand filter
Horner and Horner, 1995	83	46.3	-	-	22–33	-	perimeter sand filter
Horner and Horner, 1995	8	20	-	-	31–69	-	perimeter sand filter
Harper and Herr, 1993	98	61	-	27	37–89	-	surface sand filter
Welborn and Veenhuis, 1987	78	27	27	-100	33–60	81	surface sand filter
City of Austin, TX, 1990	75	59	44	-13	34–67	36	surface sand filter
City of Austin, TX, 1990	92	80	71	23	84–91	83	surface sand filter
City of Austin, TX, 1990	86	19	31	-5	33–71	37	surface sand filter
City of Austin, TX, 1990	87	61	32	-79	60-86	37	surface sand filter
Barton Springs/Edwards Aquifer Conservation District, 1996	81	39	13	-11	58–79	-	vertical sand filter
Barton Springs/Edwards Aquifer Conservation District, 1996	55	45	15	-87	58–60	-	vertical sand filter
Stewart, 1992	95	41	-	-34	61–87	-	organic filter
Curran, 1996	66	51	47	22	26–75	-	organic filter

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Storm Water Wetland

Postconstruction Storm Water Management in New Development and Redevelopment

Description

A storm water wetland detains storm water, removes pollutants, and provides habitat and aesthetic benefits (Source: The Bioengineering Group, Inc., no date)

Storm water wetlands (a.k.a. constructed wetlands) are structural practices similar to wet ponds (see Wet Pond fact sheet) that incorporate wetland plants into the design. As storm water runoff flows through the wetland, pollutant removal is achieved through settling and biological uptake within the practice. Wetlands are among the most effective storm water practices in terms of pollutant removal and they also offer aesthetic value. Although natural wetlands can sometimes be used to treat storm water runoff that has been properly pretreated, storm water wetlands are fundamentally different from natural wetland systems. Storm water wetlands are designed specifically for the purpose of treating storm water runoff, and typically have less biodiversity than natural wetlands in terms of both plant and animal life. Several design variations of the storm water wetland exist, each design differing in the relative amounts of shallow and deep water, and dry storage above the wetland.

A distinction should be made between using a constructed wetland for storm water management and diverting storm water into a natural wetland. The latter practice is not recommended because altering the hydrology of the existing wetland with additional storm water can degrade the resource and result in plant die-off and the destruction of wildlife habitat. In all circumstances, natural wetlands should be protected from the adverse effects of development, including impacts from increased storm water runoff. This is especially important because natural wetlands provide storm water and flood control benefits on a regional scale.

Applicability

Constructed wetlands are widely applicable storm water management practices. While they have limited applicability in highly urbanized settings and in arid climates, wetlands have few other restrictions.

Regional Applicability

Storm water wetlands can be applied in most regions of the United States, with the exception of arid climates. In arid and semi-arid climates, it is difficult to design any storm water practice that has a permanent pool. Because storm water wetlands are shallow, a relatively large area is subject to evaporation relative, to the volume of the practice. This makes maintaining the permanent pool in wetlands both more challenging and more important than maintaining the pool of a wet pond (see Wet Pond fact sheet).

Ultra-Urban Areas

Ultra-urban areas are densely developed urban areas in which little pervious surface exists. It is difficult to use wet ponds in the ultra-urban environment because of the land area each wetland consumes. They can, however, be used in an ultra-urban environment if a relatively large area is available downstream of the site.

Storm Water Hot Spots

Storm water hot spots are areas where land use or activities generate highly contaminated runoff, with concentrations of pollutants in excess of those typically found in storm water. A typical example is a gas station. Wetlands can accept runoff from storm water hot spots, but need significant separation from ground water if they will be used for this purpose. Caution also needs to be exercised, if these practices are designed to encourage wildlife use, to ensure that pollutants in storm water runoff do not work their way through the food chain of organisms living in or near the wetland.

Storm Water Retrofit

A storm water retrofit is a storm water management practice (usually structural) put into place after development has occurred, to improve water quality, protect downstream channels, reduce flooding, or meet other specific objectives. When retrofitting an entire watershed, storm water wetlands have the advantage of providing both educational and habitat value. One disadvantage to wetlands, however, is the difficulty of storing large amounts of runoff without consuming a large amount of land. It is also possible to incorporate wetland elements into existing practices, such as wetland plantings (see Wet Pond and Dry Extended Detention Pond fact sheets)

Cold Water (Trout) Streams

Wetlands pose a risk to cold water systems because of their potential for stream warming. When water remains in the permanent pool, it is heated by the sun. A study in Prince George's County, Maryland, investigated the thermal impacts of a wide range of storm water management practices (Galli, 1990). In this study, only one wetland was investigated, which was an extended detention wetland (see Design Variations). The practice increased the average temperature of storm water runoff that flowed through the practice by about 3°F. As a result, it is likely that wetlands increase water temperature.

Siting and Design Considerations

In addition to the broad applicability concerns described above, designers need to consider conditions at the site level. In addition, they need to incorporate design features to improve the longevity and performance of the practice, while minimizing the maintenance burden.

Siting Considerations

In addition to the restrictions and modifications to adapting storm water wetlands to different regions and land uses, designers need to ensure that this management practice is feasible at the site in question. The following section provides basic guidelines for siting wetlands.

Drainage Area

Wetlands need sufficient drainage area to maintain the permanent pool. In humid regions, this is typically about 25 acres, but a greater area may be needed in regions with less rainfall.

Slope

Wetlands can be used on sites with an upstream slope of up to about 15 percent. The local slope should be relatively shallow, however. While there is no minimum slope requirement, there does need to be enough elevation drop from the inlet to the outlet to ensure that hydraulic conveyance by gravity is feasible (generally about 3 to 5 feet).

Soils/Topography

Wetlands can be used in almost all soils and geology, with minor design adjustments for regions of karst (i.e. limestone) topography (see Design Considerations).

Ground Water

Unless they receive hot spot runoff, wetlands can often intersect the ground water table. Some research suggests that pollutant removal is reduced when ground water contributes substantially to the pool volume (Schueler, 1997b). It is assumed that wetlands would have a similar response.

Design Considerations

Specific designs may vary considerably, depending on site constraints or preferences of the designer or community. There are some features, however, that should be incorporated into most wetland designs. These design features can be divided into five basic categories: pretreatment, treatment, conveyance, maintenance reduction, and landscaping.

Pretreatment

Pretreatment incorporates design features that help to settle out coarse sediment particles. By removing these particles from runoff before they reach the large permanent pool, the maintenance burden of the pond is reduced. In wetlands, pretreatment is achieved with a sediment forebay. A sediment forebay is a small pool (typically about 10 percent of the volume of the permanent pool). Coarse particles remain trapped in the forebay, and maintenance is performed on this smaller pool, eliminating the need to dredge the entire pond.

Treatment

Treatment design features help enhance the ability of a storm water management practice to remove pollutants. The purpose of most of these features is to increase the amount of time and flowpath by which storm water remains in the wetland. Some typical design features include

- The surface area of wetlands should be at least 1 percent of the drainage area to the practice.
- Wetlands should have a length-to-width ratio of at least 1.5:1. Making the wetland longer than it is wide helps prevent "short circuiting" of the practice.
- Effective wetland design displays "complex microtopography." In other words, wetlands should have zones of both very shallow (<6 inches) and moderately shallow (<18 inches) wetlands incorporated, using underwater earth berms to create the zones. This design will

provide a longer flow path through the wetland to encourage settling, and it provides two depth zones to encourage plant diversity.

Conveyance

Conveyance of storm water runoff into and through a storm water management practice is a critical component of any practice. Storm water should be conveyed to and from practices safely and to minimize erosion potential. The outfall of pond systems should always be stabilized to prevent scour. In addition, an emergency spillway should be provided to safely convey large flood events. To help mitigate warming at the outlet channel, designers should provide shade around the channel at the pond outlet.

Maintenance Reduction

In addition to regular maintenance activities needed to maintain the function of storm water practices, some design features can be incorporated to ease the maintenance burden of each practice. In wetlands, maintenance reduction features include techniques to reduce the amount of maintenance needed, as well as techniques to make regular maintenance activities easier.

One potential maintenance concern in wet ponds is clogging of the outlet. Wetlands should be designed with a nonclogging outlet such as a reverse-slope pipe or a weir outlet with a trash rack. A reverse-slope pipe draws from below the permanent pool extending in a reverse angle up to the riser and establishes the water elevation of the permanent pool. Because these outlets draw water from below the level of the permanent pool, they are less likely to be clogged by floating debris. Another general rule is that no orifice should be less than 3 inches in diameter. Smaller orifices are generally more susceptible to clogging, without specific design considerations to reduce this problem. Another feature that can help reduce the potential for clogging of the outlet is to incorporate a small pool, or "micropool" at the outlet.

Design features are also incorporated to ease maintenance of both the forebay and the main pool of wetlands. Wetlands should be designed with a maintenance access to the forebay to ease this relatively routine (5- to 7-year) maintenance activity. In addition, the permanent pool should have a pond drain to draw down the pond for the more infrequent dredging of the main cell of the wetland.

Landscaping

Landscaping of wetlands can make them an asset to a community and can also enhance the pollutant removal of the practice. In wetland systems, landscaping is an integral part of the design. To ensure the establishment and survival of wetland plants, a landscaping plan should provide detailed information about the plants selected, when they will be planted, and a strategy for maintaining them. The plan should detail wetland plants, as well as vegetation to be established adjacent to the wetland.

A variety of techniques can be used to establish wetland plants. The most effective techniques are the use of nursery stock as dormant rhizomes, live potted plants, and bare rootstock. A "wetland mulch," soil from a natural wetland or a designed "wetland mix," can be used to supplement wetland plantings or alone to establish wetland vegetation. Wetland mulch carries with it the seed bank from the original wetland, and can help to enhance diversity in the wetland. The least expensive option to establish wetlands is to allow the wetland to colonize itself. One

disadvantage to this last technique is that invasive species such as cattails or Phragmites may dominate the wetland.

When developing a plan for wetland planting, care needs to be taken to ensure that plants are established in the proper depth and within the planting season. This season varies regionally, and is generally between 2 and 3 months long in the spring to early summer. Plant lists are available for various regions of the United States through wetland nurseries, extension services, and conservation districts.

Design Variations

There are several variations of the wetland design. The designs are characterized by the volume of the wetland in deep pool, high marsh, and low marsh, and whether the design allows for detention of small storms above the wetland surface. Other design variations help to make wetland designs practical in cold climates.

Shallow Marsh

In the shallow marsh design, most of the wetland volume is in the relatively shallow high marsh or low marsh depths. The only deep portions of the shallow wetland design are the forebay at the inlet to the wetland and the micropool at the outlet. One disadvantage to this design is that, since the pool is very shallow, a large amount of land is typically needed to store the water quality volume (i.e., the volume of runoff to be treated in the wetland).

Extended Detention Wetland

This design is the same as the shallow marsh, with additional storage above the surface of the marsh. Storm water is temporarily ponded above the surface in the extended detention zone for between 12 and 24 hours. This design can treat a greater volume of storm water in a smaller space than the shallow wetland design. In the extended detention wetland option, plants that can tolerate wet and dry periods should be specified in the extended detention zone.

Pond/Wetland System

The pond/wetland system combines the wet pond (see Wet Pond fact sheet) design with a shallow marsh. Storm water runoff flows through the wet pond and into the shallow marsh. Like the extended detention wetland, this design requires less surface area than the shallow marsh because some of the volume of the practice is in the relatively deep (i.e., 6–8 feet) pond.

Pocket Wetland

This design is very similar to the pocket pond (see Wet Pond fact sheet). In this design, the bottom of the wetland intersects the ground water, which helps to maintain the permanent pool. Some evidence suggests that ground water flows may reduce the overall effectiveness of storm water management practices (Schueler, 1997b). This option may be used when there is not significant drainage area to maintain a permanent pool.

Gravel-Based Wetlands

In this design, runoff flows through a rock filter with wetland plants at the surface. Pollutants are removed through biological activity on the surface of the rocks, as well as by pollutant uptake of the plants. This practice is fundamentally different from other wetland designs because, while most wetland designs behave like wet ponds with differences in grading and landscaping, gravel-based wetlands are more similar to a filtering system.

Regional Variations

Cold Climates

Cold climates present many challenges to designers of wetlands. During the spring snowmelt, a large volume of water runs off in a short time, carrying a relatively high pollutant load. In addition, cold winter temperatures may cause freezing of the permanent pool or freezing at inlets and outlets. Finally, high salt concentrations in runoff resulting from road salting, as well as sediment loads from road sanding, may impact wetland vegetation.

One of the greatest challenges of storm water wetlands, particularly shallow marshes, is that much of the practice is very shallow. Therefore, much of the volume in the wetland can be lost as the surface of the practice freezes. One study found that the performance of a wetland system was diminished during the spring snowmelt because the outlet and surface of the wetland had frozen. Sediment and pollutants in snowmelt and rainfall events "skated" over the surface of the wetland, depositing at the outlet of the wetland. When the ice melted, this sediment was washed away by storm events (Oberts, 1994). Several design features can help minimize this problem, including:

- "On-line" designs allowing flow to move continuously can help prevent outlets from freezing.
- Wetlands should be designed with multiple cells, with a berm or weir separating each cell. This modification will help to retain storage for treatment above the ice layer during the winter season.
- Outlets that are resistant to freezing should be used. Some examples include weirs or pipes with large diameters.

The salt and sand used to remove ice from roads and parking lots may also create a challenge to designing wetlands in cold climates. When wetlands drain highway runoff, or parking lots, salt-tolerant vegetation, such as pickle weed or cord grass should be used. (Contact a local nursery or extension agency for more information in your region). In addition, designers should consider using a large forebay to capture the sediment from road sanding.

Karst Topography

In karst (i.e., limestone) topography, wetlands should be designed with an impermeable liner to prevent ground water contamination or sinkhole formation, and to help maintain the permanent pool.

Limitations

Some features of storm water wetlands that may make the design challenging include the following:

- Each wetland consumes a relatively large amount of space, making it an impractical option on many sites.
- Improperly designed wetlands can become a breeding area for mosquitoes.
- Wetlands require careful design and planning to ensure that wetland plants are sustained after the practice is in place.
- It is possible that storm water wetlands may release nutrients during the nongrowing season.
- Designers need to ensure that wetlands do not negatively impact natural wetlands or forest during the design phase.
- Wetlands consume a large amount of land. This characteristic may limit their use in areas where land values are high.

Maintenance Considerations

In addition to incorporating features into the wetland design to minimize maintenance, some regular maintenance and inspection practices are needed. Table 1 outlines these practices.

Table 1. Regular maintenance activities for wetlands (Source: Adapted from WMI, 1997, and CWP, 1998)

Activity	Schedule
• Replace wetland vegetation to maintain at least 50% surface area coverage in wetland plants after the second growing season.	One-time
• Inspect for invasive vegetation and remove where possible.	Semi-annual inspection
• Inspect for damage to the embankment and inlet/outlet structures. Repair as necessary. • Note signs of hydrocarbon build-up, and deal with appropriately. • Monitor for sediment accumulation in the facility and forebay. • Examine to ensure that inlet and outlet devices are free of debris and are operational.	Annual inspection
• Repair undercut or eroded areas.	As needed maintenance
• Clean and remove debris from inlet and outlet structures. • Mow side slopes.	Frequent (3–4 times/year) maintenance
• Supplement wetland plants if a significant portion have not established (at least 50% of the surface area). • Harvest wetland plants that have been "choked out" by sediment build-up.	Annual maintenance (if needed)
• Remove sediment from the forebay.	5- to 7-year maintenance
• Monitor sediment accumulations, and remove sediment when the pool volume has become reduced significantly, plants are "choked" with sediment, or the wetland becomes eutrophic.	20- to 50-year maintenance

Effectiveness

Structural storm water management practices can be used to achieve four broad resource protection goals. These include flood control, channel protection, ground water recharge, and pollutant removal. Wetlands can provide flood control, channel protection, and pollutant removal.

Flood Control

One objective of storm water management practices can be to reduce the flood hazard associated with large storm events by reducing the peak flow associated with these storms. Wetlands can easily be designed for flood control by providing flood storage above the level of the permanent pool.

Channel Protection

When used for channel protection, wetlands have traditionally controlled the 2-year storm. It appears that this control has been relatively ineffective, and recent research suggests that control of a smaller storm may be more appropriate (MacRae, 1996).

Ground Water Recharge

Wetlands cannot provide ground water recharge. The build-up of debris at the bottom of the wetland prevents the movement of water into the subsoil.

Pollutant Removal

Wetlands are among the most effective storm water management practices at removing storm water pollutants. A wide range of research is available to estimate the effectiveness of wetlands. Wetlands have high pollutant removal rates, and are more effective than any other practice at removing nitrate and bacteria. Table 2 provides pollutant removal data derived from the Center for Watershed Protections's National Pollutant Removal Database for Stormwater Treatment Practices (Winer, 2000).

The effectiveness of wetlands varies considerably, but many believe that proper design and maintenance might help to improve their performance. The siting and design criteria presented in this sheet reflect the best current information and experience to improve the performance of wetlands. A recent joint project of the American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE) and the U.S. EPA Office of Water may help to isolate specific design features that can improve performance. The National Stormwater Best Management Practice (BMP) database is a compilation of storm water practices which includes both design information and performance data for various practices. As the database expands, inferences about the extent to which specific design criteria influence pollutant removal may be made. More information on this database is available on the ASCE web page at http://www.asce.org.

Table 2. Typical Pollutant Removal Rates of Wetlands (%) (Winer, 2000)

Pollutant	Stormwater Treatment Practice Design Variation			
	Shallow Marsh	ED Wetland[1]	Pond/Wetland System	Submerged Gravel Wetland[1]
TSS	83±51	69	71±35	83
TP	43±40	39	56±35	64
TN	26±49	56	19±29	19
NOx	73±49	35	40±68	81
Metals	36–85	(-80)–63	0–57	21–83
Bacteria	76[1]	NA	NA	78

[1]Data based on fewer than five data points

Cost Considerations

Wetlands are relatively inexpensive storm water practices. Construction cost data for wetlands are rare, but one simplifying assumption is that they are typically about 25 percent more expensive than storm water ponds of an equivalent volume. Using this assumption, an equation developed by Brown and Schueler (1997) to estimate the cost of wet ponds can be modified to estimate the cost of storm water wetlands using the equation:

$C = 30.6V^{0.705}$

where:

C = Construction, design, and permitting cost;

V = Wetland volume needed to control the 10-year storm (ft^3).

Using this equation, typical construction costs are the following:

$ 57,100 for a 1 acre-foot facility

$ 289,000 for a 10 acre-foot facility

$ 1,470,000 for a 100 acre-foot facility

Wetlands consume about 3 to 5 percent of the land that drains to them, which is relatively high compared with other storm water management practices. In areas where land value is high, this may make wetlands an infeasible option.

For wetlands, the annual cost of routine maintenance is typically estimated at about 3 percent to 5 percent of the construction cost. Alternatively, a community can estimate the cost of the

maintenance activities outlined in the maintenance section. Wetlands are long-lived facilities (typically longer than 20 years). Thus, the initial investment into these systems may be spread over a relatively long time period.

Although no studies are available on wetlands in particular, there is some evidence to suggest that wet ponds may provide an economic benefit by increasing property values. The results of one study suggest that "pond frontage" property can increase the selling price of new properties by about 10 percent (USEPA, 1995). Another study reported that the perceived value (i.e., the value estimated by residents of a community) of homes was increased by about 15 to 25 percent when located near a wet pond (Emmerling-Dinovo, 1995). It is anticipated that well-designed wetlands, which incorporate additional aesthetic features, would have the same benefit.

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